Unified Combatant Commands

Introduction

As future Air Force officers, it is important for you to be able to distinguish between the missions of Major Commands such as Air Combat Command and Air Mobility Command with the responsibilities of the Unified Combatant Commands. Operational Control of the US combat forces is assigned to the nation's Unified Combatant Commands. The chain of command runs from the President to the Secretary of Defense to the Unified Commanders in Chief. Orders and other communications from the President or Secretary are transmitted through the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff. A Unified Combatant Command is composed of forces from two or more services, and has a broad and continuing mission, normally organized on a geographical basis. The number of unified combatant commands is not fixed by law or regulation and may vary from time to time.

Study Assignment

Read the information section of this lesson.

Lesson Objective: Know the United States' responsibility according to its standing alliances and how the United States military is organized to function in wartime situations.

Samples of Behavior:
1. Identify the main purpose of each unified combatant command.
2. Identify the United States' responsibility according to the Rio Treaty.
3. Describe the current status of the ANZUS treaty.

Information

Unified Combatant Commands

Definition

A command which has a broad, continuing mission under a single commander composed of forces from two or more Services, and which is established and so designated by the President through the Secretary of Defense with the advice and assistance of the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

History

The history of the current combatant command arrangement begins with the lessons learned in the Cuban campaign of the Spanish-American War. Between 1903 and 1942, the joint Army and Navy Board sought cooperation between the Army and

Navy, but accomplished little in the way of improving joint command. In effect, decisions on joint matters in dispute between the Services went to the level of the commander in chief. The President was the single "commander" who had a view of the entire military theater and authority over both the Army and Navy on-site commanders. Interestingly, one product of the Joint Board, an agreement on "mutual cooperation" in joint operations, was in effect at the time of the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in December 1941. Early in World War II, General George C. Marshall, Army Chief of Staff, realized that a unified command arrangement, not mutual cooperation, had been made necessary because of the complexity of modern warfare.

The experiences of World War II fully supported the theory and practice of unified command. Then, quite unlike today, the unified commanders reported to their executive agents on the Joint U.S. Chiefs of Staff. The executive agents have alternately been the military chiefs of Services (World War II and 1948) and the civilian secretaries of the military departments (1953-1958). Confusion rose from the understanding that the suppliers of the support and administration, the military departments, should also share in the direction of the forces in combat.

The National Security Act (NSA) of 1947 was the first definitive legislative statement "to provide for the effective strategic direction of the armed forces and for their operation under unified control and for their integration into an efficient team of land, naval, and air forces." The act went on to say that it was the responsibility of the Joint Chiefs of Staff to "establish unified commands in strategic areas when such unified commands are in the interest of national security," and the President would establish unified and specified combatant commands to perform military missions. The military departments would assign forces to the combatant commands; the responsibility for their support and administration would be assigned by the Secretary of Defense to a military department. Forces not assigned would remain under the authority of the military department. Now, it was thought, the nation could make more effective use of its military resources.

Organizational Relationships

The unified command structure is flexible, and changes as required to accommodate evolving U.S. national security needs. A classified document called the Unified Command Plan (UCP) establishes the combatant commands, identifies geographic areas of responsibility, assigns primary tasks, defines authority of the commanders, establishes command relationships, and gives guidance on the exercise of combatant command. It is approved by the President, published by the CJCS, and addressed to the commanders of combatant commands.

Five combatant commanders have geographic area responsibilities. These CINCs are assigned an area of operations by the Unified Command Plan and are responsible for all operations within their designated areas: US Joint Forces Command, US Central Command, US European Command, US Pacific Command, and US Southern Command.

The CINCs of the remaining combatant commands have worldwide functional responsibilities not bounded by any single area of operations and they are US Space Command, US Special Operations Command, US Strategic Command and US Transportation Command.

US Central Command

US Central Command (USCENTCOM) located at MacDill Air Force Base, Tampa, Florida, is the unified command responsible for U.S. security interests in 25 nations that stretch from the Horn of Africa through the Arabian Gulf region, into Central Asia. It is one of five geographically defined unified commands in the Department of Defense, covering the area of the globe between the European and Pacific commands. In recent years, USCENTCOM has become known for its success in the war against Iraq and for humanitarian intervention in Somalia. It continues to confront challenges in its assigned part of the world.

When the United States found itself thrust into a more prominent role in world affairs following the end of World War II, it viewed the countries of the Central region through a Cold War prism. National policies focused on denying further territory and resources to the Soviet Union, including access to Middle East oil. Until the late 1970s, the United States relied on the twin "pillars" of Iran and Saudi Arabia to promote peace and stability in the Central region. This policy was in accordance with the Nixon Doctrine that called upon friends and allies to deal with threats from countries other than the Soviet Union or China.

History

This strategy began to unravel in 1979, when the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan and the hostage crisis in Iran raised questions about America's ability to secure access to Arabian Gulf oil and honor commitments to friendly Arab states and Israel. In January 1980, President Jimmy Carter proclaimed that any attempt by an outside force to gain control of the region would be regarded as an assault on U.S. vital interests.

Organization

The headquarters staff includes over 900 personnel from each of the four military services. Each of the services also provides USCENTCOM with component commands, which, along with our joint special operations component, make up USCENTCOM's primary warfighting and engagement organizations.

As previously mentioned, United States Central Command's Area of Responsibility includes 25 nations, ranging from Egypt in the West to Pakistan in the East, from Kazakhstan in the North to Kenya and the Horn of Africa in the South. It includes the waters of the Red Sea, Arabian Gulf, and the Western portions of the Indian Ocean. The region comprises an area larger than the continental United States, stretching more than 3,100 miles East-to-West and 3,600 miles North-to-South. It includes mountain ranges with elevations exceeding 24,000 feet, desert areas below sea level and temperatures ranging from below freezing to more than 130 degrees Fahrenheit. It remains, as it has for centuries, a region of diversity, with different cultures, religions, economic conditions, demographics, and forms of government.

US Transportation Command

World War II, the Berlin blockade, the Korean and Vietnam conflicts, all demonstrated the need for a strong, vigorous and responsive transportation system within the US and the means to move forces abroad to protect our interests and meet the commitments of our allies. In 1978, command post exercise Nifty Nugget pointed out some serious problems in our nation's ability to mobilize and deploy forces on a large scale. Over the next decade the Department of Defense worked to improve strategic mobility through command and control initiatives. In 1979, it established the Joint Deployment Agency (JDA) to give the transportation operation agencies a direct reporting chain to the Joint Chiefs of Staff, but the JDA, with a two-star at its helm, did not have directive authority.

On 1 April 1986, acting on a recommendation made by the Packard Commission, President Reagan signed National Security Decision Directive 219, directing the formation of a unified transportation command under a four-star Commander in Chief reporting to the Secretary of Defense through the Chairman, JCS. As a result, the Office of the Secretary of Defense established USTRANSCOM on 18 April 1987, at Scott AFB, Illinois, with three component commands: the Air Force's Military Airlift Command (MAC), the Army's Military Traffic Management Command (MTMC), and the Navy's Military Sealift Command (MSC). However, the evolution of transportation in the DoD as envisioned following Nifty Nugget was not yet complete because the component commands, under USTRANSCOM's original charter, were not assigned to USTRANSCOM in peacetime. Also, the components retained their single manager charters for their respective modes of transportation.

To continue to strengthen the Department of Defense's ability to carry out its transportation missions effectively and efficiently, Secretary of Defense Dick Cheney on 14 February 1992 directed that the mission of USTRANSCOM would be to provide air, land, and sea transportation for the Department of Defense, both in time of peace and time of war. Secretary Cheney's memorandum also designated the Commander in Chief, USTRANSCOM as the nation's single manger of defense transportation resources.

As a result, USTRANSCOM now provides cohesiveness in the procurement of commercial transportation services, activation of sealift and airlift augmentation programs, financial resource control, and receipt of transportation movement requirements. In the face of numerous challenges, including Operations Just Cause and Desert Shield/Desert Storm, United Nations peacekeeping operations in Bosnia-Herzegovina, evacuation of American citizens and foreign nations from Liberia, and humanitarian relief support operations — such as Hurricanes Andrew (Florida) and Marilyn (Florida), Restore Hope (Somalia), Support Hope (Rwanda), Uphold Democracy (Haiti), and in the aftermath of the Oklahoma City bombing — USTRANSCOM has proven its worth.

USTRANSCOM is the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps working together under one commander in chief overseeing a vital element of support to our national defense. Tested under fire and almost daily in support of humanitarian

efforts, USTRANSCOM, its component commands, and its commercial partners continually exceed customer expectations.

US Strategic Command

In 1945, World War II was over, the nuclear age was upon us, and the Cold War would soon develop between the US and Soviet Union. Established in March 1946, the US Air Force's Strategic Air Command (SAC), with its bomber force, symbolized the cornerstone of national strategic policy: deterrence -- deterrence against the growing nuclear arsenal of the Soviet Union.

As its contribution to national deterrence, the US Navy began developing nuclear forces. In the late 1950's, with the advent of the Navy's Polaris ballistic missile submarine and the Air Force's first intercontinental ballistic missile, national leadership recognized the need for a single agency to plan and target all US nuclear forces. As a result, the Joint Strategic Target Planning Staff (JSTPS) was established in 1960. Its mission was to produce the Nation's strategic nuclear war plan, the Single Integrated Operational Plan (SIOP). The JSTPS was housed with SAC to take full advantage of SAC's existing war planning expertise, intelligence capability and an extensive communications network.

It was the combination of the unique capabilities of the Navy's submarine launched ballistic missiles along with the Air Force's bombers and ICBMs that came to be known as the Strategic Nuclear Triad. For almost forty years, the Triad provided a visible, credible deterrent against Soviet aggression.

On 1 June 1992, with the Berlin Wall down, the Warsaw Pact a memory and the Soviet Union nonexistent, SAC and the JSTPS also took their place in the history books of the Cold War. That same day, US Strategic Command was established. Its mission of deterrence would sound familiar, but its structure and role would reflect the changing international political landscape. With STRATCOM, for the first time in US history, the planning, targeting and wartime employment of strategic forces came under the control of a single commander while the day-to-day training, equipping and maintenance responsibilities for its forces remained with the services -- the Air Force and Navy.

As STRATCOM embarks on this era of strategic disengagement marked by sharp decreases in the nuclear arsenals of the US and former Soviet Union, other more profound, more complex challenges wait on the horizon. Most significant of these challenges is countering the spread of weapons of mass destruction, biological, chemical and nuclear.

The Triad--submarine-launched ballistic missiles, land-based intercontinental ballistic missiles and strategic bombers--remains the foundation of deterrence. Deterrence provided by safe, secure, reliable and operationally efficient nuclear forces. These strategic forces constrain the behavior of potential adversaries by ensuring any would-be aggressors take into serious consideration the existence of the US nuclear deterrent force.

Vigilant and ready, US Strategic Command is prepared for the fast-paced changes and threats in the post-Cold War world. Peace is our Profession.

US Space Command

US Space Command was created in 1985, but America's military actually began operating in space much earlier. With the Soviet Union's unexpected 1957 launch of the world's first man-made satellite, Sputnik I, President Eisenhower accelerated the nation's slowly emerging civil and military space efforts. The vital advantage that space could give either country during those dark days of the Cold War was evident in his somber words. "Space objectives relating to defense are those to which the highest priority attaches because they bear on our immediate safety," he said.

During the 1960s and 1970s, the Army, Navy and Air Force advanced and expanded space technologies in the areas of communication, meteorology, geodesy, navigation and reconnaissance. Space continued to support strategic deterrence by providing arms control and treaty verification, and by offering unambiguous, early warning of any missile attack on North America.

On 23 September 1985, the Joint Chiefs of Staff confirmed the ever-increasing value of military space systems by creating a new unified command — U.S. Space Command — to help institutionalize the use of space in US deterrence efforts.

The US-led coalition's 1991 victory in the Persian Gulf War underscored, and brought widespread recognition to the value of military space operations. Communications, intelligence, navigation, missile warning and weather satellites demonstrated that space systems could be indispensable providers of tactical information to U.S. warfighters.

Since then, U.S. Space Command has further strengthened its focus on war fighting by ensuring that Soldiers and Marines in the foxhole, Sailors on the ship's bridge, and pilots in the cockpit have the space information they need — when they need it.

US Joint Forces Command

The United States Atlantic Command was officially established on 1 December 1947, making it one of the original unified commands within the Department of Defense. As the name implies, it was primarily a maritime command, with responsibility for the Atlantic Ocean, especially the sea lanes between the United States and Europe. From its beginning, Atlantic Command has devoted much of its resources to protecting the north Atlantic against Soviet submarines. Two sub-unified commands in Iceland and the Azores were important outposts of the United States, to be used for anti-submarine warfare, refueling of aircraft, and early warning of air attack. In 1952 the North Atlantic Treaty Organization created the Allied Command Atlantic, with its headquarters adjacent to Atlantic Command's headquarters in Norfolk. The Commander in Chief of Atlantic Command also became NATO's Supreme Allied Commander Atlantic.

In 1956 Atlantic Command received responsibility for the Caribbean Islands. A communist revolution in Cuba in 1959 transformed the Caribbean into one of the most turbulent regions within the command's area of operations. Some of the most important operations in the Caribbean have included the Cuban missile crisis of 1962, the 1965 intervention in the Dominican Republic, the 1983 invasion of Grenada, and the intervention in Haiti during the 1990s. The 1997 Unified Command

Plan, however, transferred oversight of the Caribbean to the United States Southern Command, changing Atlantic Command's role to a supporting one.

Although it was a unified command, the maritime nature of Atlantic Command's area of operations ensured that it would be overwhelmingly Navy or Marine Corps. Aside from the sub-unified commands in Iceland and the Azores, the Navy's Atlantic Fleet, with its Marine Corps components, remained the only peacetime component of Atlantic Command. During crises, such as the ones in the Dominican Republic or Grenada, Atlantic Command received temporary control of components from the Army and Air Force; but the organization remained primarily naval until 1993. A greater recognition of the importance of joint (multi-service) operations during the 1990s led to significant changes in the mission and organization of Atlantic Command. Sensing the requirements for better coordination and interoperability between the services, the Joint Chiefs of Staff recommended that Atlantic Command assume responsibility for training and integrating the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Air Force in joint operations. President Clinton approved the recommendation in the 1993 Unified Command Plan, which directed Atlantic Command to assume peacetime command of the Army's Forces Command, and the Air Force's Air Combat Command. Atlantic Command became the provider, trainer, and, integrator for joint forces within the U.S. military structure.

Although the United States Atlantic Command has evolved from a primarily naval organization to a leader in the military's efforts to enhance its joint operations, much has remained constant. It still retains responsibility for the North Atlantic sea-lanes, working with our NATO allies. Most importantly it relies upon the professionalism of its service members to fulfill its responsibilities for the national defense.

US European Command

The Headquarters, United States European Command (HQ USEUCOM) was formally activated at "0001 Zebra [sic] hours, 1 August 1952." Primarily a response to the Korean War--and the perceived threat to U.S. interests in Western Europe--the establishment of USEUCOM can also be seen as a milestone in the evolutionary process of American engagement in Europe that began during the Second World War. This ongoing process, which reflects the changes taking place within the European Theater, has historically provided both continuity and stability through a robust American forward presence.

The name "European Command," or "EUCOM" as the command is often referred to, does not fully describe its area of responsibility (AOR) that includes eighty-three countries in Europe, Africa and the Middle East. Together, these countries constitute a vast expanse of over 13 million square miles, inhabited by over one billion people. These inhabitants and their institutions reflect an equally vast diversity in: economic development, political stability, religion, and attitude towards the United States. For planning purposes, the USEUCOM AOR has been sub-divided into four regions: Western Europe and NATO, Central Europe and the Newly Independent States, the Middle East and North Africa, and Sub-Saharan Africa.

The USEUCOM area of interest (AOI) extends beyond the USEUCOM AOR into the AOR's of the other four area unified commands, as well as into countries not

presently assigned to any unified command (e.g. Russia and states of the former Soviet Union). Close continuous coordination with these commands and the Joint Staff is necessary to ensure both the protection and advancement of U.S. national interests.

US Pacific Command

The Asia-Pacific region, with economies, people, and sea-lanes, is a vital national interest. It contains over half of the world's surface, sixty percent of its population, largely along its littorals. The confluence of security, economic and diplomatic interests in the Asia-Pacific requires us to work security issues concurrently. Security provides the foundation for stability, which in turn, yields opportunities for nations to pursue economic prosperity.
The Pacific Command strategy has six elements for ensuring regional security:

- U.S. Military forces--credible, combat capable; trained and ready to fight and win; balanced and joint.

- Forward stationing of critical capabilities--today the capability represented by about 100,000 U.S. troops--that provide the standard of U.S. commitment.

- Positive security relationships with all nations in the region--including our formal alliances with Japan, Korea, Australia, Thailand, and the Philippines; our emerging relationship with China, and nascent relationships such as with Vietnam. We believe multilateral relationships hold promise for future stability in the region.

- Long-term commitment and long-haul solutions--the U.S. is here to stay.

- Teamwork with the State and Commerce Departments, and other U.S. government agencies--ensuring our views are reflected in the interagency process.

- Measured responses to regional events--promoting peaceful resolution, including preparation to provide humanitarian assistance and disaster relief.

Combined Commands

Another command structure our military is familiar with is the combined command. Combined commands have forces from two or more nations, and they don't necessarily come under the control of the DOD. U.S. Space Command is part of one such combined command--the North American Air Defense Command, which includes Canadian and U.S. forces.

Combined commands operate similarly to unified commands, except that command is much less structured. Units from the member nations retain their national identities, and much negotiation between nations takes place to ensure that the command function effectively. Let's look now at the agreements that are in place to integrate our forces with other countries'.

North American Aerospace Defense Command (NORAD) Agreement

NORAD is the first binational multiservice organization to function on this continent. It also represents the first peacetime defense agreement between Canada and the US, placing military forces at the disposal of a single commander in chief.

When NORAD was first established in 1957, the command's mission was limited to air defense-related responsibilities. Specifically, its mission was to provide surveillance and control of the airspace of Canada and the United States in addition to providing an appropriate response against air attack.

In 1975, the commands mission broadened to include warning and assessment of an aerospace attack. This expanded responsibility recognized the growing Soviet ballistic missile and space threat to North America.

In April 1991, the United States and Canada signed a five-year renewal of the NORAD Agreement, the seventh extension of the pact. In their diplomatic notes, the two partners emphasized NORAD's significant role in counter narcotics efforts, particularly the command's mission of detecting and monitoring aircraft suspected of smuggling drugs into North America.

Treaties

The North Atlantic Treaty

The way for collective action was cleared when the Senate, in the Vandenberg Resolution of 11 June 1948, voiced the opinion that the U.S. should, among other measures for promoting peace, associate itself, "by constitutional process, with such regional and other collective arrangements as are based on continuous and effective self-help and mutual aid, and as affect its national security." The treaty--a pronounced break with the principle of "no permanent alliances"--was signed April 4, 1949, by twelve nations of the North Atlantic and Western European areas. This number was increased to fifteen with the accession of Greece and Turkey in 1952 and West Germany in 1955. The parties agreed to settle peacefully all disputes between themselves and to develop their capacity to resist armed attack "by means of continuous and effective self-help and mutual aid." But the heart of the treaty was Article 5, which declared that an armed attack upon any one of the members in Europe or North America would be considered an attack upon all, and pledged each member in case of such an attack to assist the party attacked "by such action as it deems necessary, including the use of armed force." Thus began the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, or NATO. The preamble to the treaty reads as follows: "The parties to this treaty reaffirm their faith in the purposes and principles of the UN Charter and their desire to live in peace with all peoples and all governments. They are determined to safeguard the freedom, common heritage and civilization of their peoples, founded on the principles of democracy, individual liberty and the rule of law. They seek to promote stability and well being in the North Atlantic area. They are resolved to unite their efforts for collective defense for the preservation of peace and security. They therefore agree to this North Atlantic treaty."

Generally, the forces of member countries remain under their own national command in peacetime. In wartime, all NATO assigned forces come under control of the NATO commander. U.S. European Command (EUCOM) and U.S. Atlantic Command (LANTCOM) provide U.S. forces to NATO.

Rio Treaty

There was one portion of the world where the threat of Communism seemed insignificant in the early postwar period. The Western Hemisphere appeared dedicated to the ideals of human freedom and free enterprise. The governments of Latin America, too often undemocratic in practice, were still democratic in theory, and the trend, it was hoped, was toward an ever-truer democracy.

In reality, however, that elaboration was accompanied by deterioration in the cooperative spirit and in the degree of cordiality shown to the United States by its southern neighbors. Old-fashioned outcries against "Yankee imperialism" and "dollar diplomacy" were mingled with new complaints that Uncle Sam sent floods of dollars in every direction except southward. Governmental and financial instability, a low standard of living, and an unhealthy distribution of property and income combined to make parts of the region, within fifteen years after the war, a tempting field for exploitation by communist agitators.

The Rio Treaty was the first of a number of regional collective security agreements concluded by the United States in conformity with Article 51 of the Charter of the United Nations. It makes it the duty of every American state to assist in meeting an armed attack upon another American State until the U.N. Security Council should have taken effective measures to repel the aggression. The nature of the action to be taken by the American states to meet such an armed attack was to be determined by a two-thirds vote of a meeting of foreign ministers with the proviso that no state should be required to use armed force without its consent.

The Treaty of Rio was signed on 2 September 1947, by 19 of the 21 American Republics, only Ecuador and Nicaragua withholding their signatures. The treaty, following ratification by two-thirds of the signatories, went into force on 3 December 1948. Cuba withdrew from the treaty on 29 March 1960. The Treaty of Rio formed the basis of a series of bilateral treaties of assistance concluded by the U.S. with Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Peru and Uruguay after 1951. The U.S. Southern Command is responsible for providing U.S. forces to Rio Treaty coalitions.

ANZUS Pact

When war came again to Australia, the nation's response was firm--some 30,000 Australians died in World War II and 65,000 were injured. From early in the war, the Royal Australian Air Force was active in the defense of Britain. The Australian Navy operated in the Mediterranean (1940-41), helping to win the Battle of Cape Matapan (March 1941). Australian troops fought in the seesaw battles of North Africa. In mid-1941, Australians suffered heavy losses both in the Allied defeats in Greece and Crete, and in the victories in the Levant.

After the Japanese attacked the United States naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii (7 December 1941), however, the focus shifted homeward. The Japanese victories of the following months more than fulfilled the fantasies that fear and hate had long promoted in Australia. On 15 February 1942, 15,000 Australians became prisoners of war with the fall of Singapore, and four days later war came to the nation's shores, when Darwin was bombed.

The U.S. became Australia's major ally. In a famous statement (December 1941), Prime Minister Curtin declared: "I make it quite clear that Australia looks to America, free from any pangs about our traditional links of friendship to Britain."

New Zealand

The alacrity with which New Zealand went to war in 1939 showed that autonomy had not weakened the country's ties with Great Britain. At first, the war resembled that of 1914; troops were sent to Egypt to train for the European conflict. Once there, they were directly involved in stopping the enemy advance and saw action in Greece, Crete, North Africa, and Italy. After 1914, New Zealand was directly threatened by Japan, and before the end of the war, the strain upon the country's manpower, together with the demands of home production, forced a reduction of commitments in the Pacific.

During World War II, the U.S. dominated the Pacific Theater, providing New Zealand's sole defense. The fact that disaster was averted by Americans, and not by British forces required a change in New Zealand's attitude; security was conferred by a foreign, though friendly, power. External relations in the postwar period reflected this new situation, chiefly through the ANZUS Pact (1951), a defensive alliance between Australia, New Zealand, and the US.

The possibility of a pact between the three countries was discussed in February 1951, when the U.S. President's advisor on foreign affairs, John Foster Dulles, visited the Australian and New Zealand capitals. A tripartite security treaty between Australia, New Zealand, and the U.S. was signed on September 1, 1951, in San Francisco, and came into force on 29 April 1952. The treaty is known as the Pacific Security Treaty or, more usually, the ANZUS Pact. The latter name derives from the initials of the three signatory countries.

Dislocation of the treaty occurred in February 1985, when the New Zealand Labour Party, newly elected on a popular mandate to establish a nuclear-free New Zealand, refused port entry to the U.S. Navy ship, USS Buchanan. This was done in response to a U.S. refusal, in accordance with Defense Department policy, to confirm or deny the presence of nuclear arms or power on board any U.S. ships. The New Zealand government asserted that denial of port access to nuclear-armed or nuclear-powered vessels was its sovereign right and within the confines of ANZUS.

The U.S. avowed that unrestricted port access was a contiguous part of any alliance. Both parties stood on positions of fundamental principal that, according to each, were irreconcilable. The treaty itself was open to either interpretation. The

ANZUS Treaty remains in existence, but "in a state of suspense," as was noted ambiguously by Australian Foreign Minister Bill Hayden.[1]

Australia and the U.S. have reaffirmed their bilateral defense interests; New Zealand has been struck from the US list of bona fide allies.

Bilateral Mutual Defense Treaties

Japanese and Philippines Treaties

A security treaty, signed at the same time as the peace treaty with Japan permitted US armed forces to remain in Japan "to contribute to the maintenance of international peace and security in the Far East and to the security of Japan." The right was to continue as long as it was needed to assure those objectives. Upon the enactment of the two treaties, the war in the Pacific officially came to an end, and Japan regained her sovereignty. As a sequel to the security treaty, the United States and Japan on 8 March 1954, signed a mutual defense assistance agreement providing for progressive Japanese rearmament with American military and economic aid.

The “Peace of Reconciliation” with Japan did not please some members of the region. The Philippines, Australia and New Zealand wished to guard themselves against the dangers involved with rearming Japan. To alleviate their fears, the U.S. signed, a few days before the Japanese treaties, a security treaty with the Philippines and another jointly with Australia and New Zealand. These treaties, less definite in their commitments than the NATO treaty, promised consultation in the event of any threat to the independence, territorial integrity, or security of any of the parties.

Korea

During 1954, the Big Four foreign ministers, meeting in Berlin, agreed that the Korean question should be answered. Subsequently, the Republic of Korea and fifteen countries of the United Nations that had participated in World War II confronted North Korea, Communist China, and the Soviet Union. The Communists rejected the United Nations’ proposal for the unification of Korea after supervised free elections throughout the country had taken place, and the United Nations had no stomach for Syngman Rhee's demand that Korea be unified by force. As a result, representatives of the U.S. and the Republic of Korea signed a treaty of mutual defense, similar to others being negotiated by the U.S. in the Pacific area, on 1 October 1953. Korea consented to the stationing of U.S. armed forces "in and about" its territory. Two American army divisions remained in Korea, nominally as part of a U.N. force. The U.S. continued to provide the Republic of Korea with economic aid annually to help arm and sustain the Korean army at unspecified cost.

Bibliography:

1. "A History of United States Foreign Policy" Julius W. Pratt, 3rd Edition 1972 by Prentice Hall Inc., New Jersey
2. "Treaties and Alliances of the World" Henry W. Aegenhardt, 3rd Edition 1981 Longman group Ltd., United Kingdom
3. "The New Encyclopedia Britannica" Encyclopedia Britannica Inc., 15th Edition 1987.
4. "Kavanagh, Wing Cinder Brian L. The Changing western Alliance in the South Pacific" cadre paper Center for Aerospace Doctrine, Research, and Education. Air University Press, Maxwell AFB, AL: 1987.

MAJOR GEORGE ANDREW DAVIS, JR.,
while leading four F-86 Saberjets on a combat patrol near the Sinuiju-Yalu River area, Korea, 10 February 1952, two aircraft returned to base due to mechanical difficulties. He and the remaining F-86 continued, sighting approximately 12 enemy MIG-15s speeding toward friendly fighter-bombers conducting operations. Disregarding the odds, Major Davis dived at the MIGs, destroying one. Under continuous fire from enemy fighters to his rear, he downed another MIG. Rather than maintain speed to evade enemy fire concentration, he reduced speed, sought the third MIG, was his, and crashed. His bold and selfless attack disrupted the enemy and permitted the fighter-bombers to complete their mission.